

(تنبيه)
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Semantics LANE 438

Chapter One The study of meaning

There are Different approaches to the investigation of meaning.

1. The systematic study of meaning:

We are all interested in meaning

Without meaning, we can't go anywhere

How would I be able as a speaker of Saudi or Swahili, etc to:

1. express my feelings or intentions to others?
2. Not only that, how to be understood with a free degree of success.

Cases:

These are daily experiences:

1. Sometimes we are not sure of the meaning we get from others
 2. We are concerned about getting our own messages to others.
 3. Sometimes we find pleasures in jokes (double meanings, ambiguity)
[productive/receptive vocabulary]
 4. Commercial organizations spend a lot of effort and money on naming productions
 5. Legal scholars argue about the interpretations
 6. Literary scholars quarrel about the meaning of some poem or story.
- ❖ Semantics is the systematic study of meaning.
 - Some common branches of semantics:

Lexical semantics, cognitive semantics, semantic change, semiotics, etc.

Linguistic semantics:

- a. is the study of how languages organize and express meanings.
- b. Is concerned with what knowledge individual speakers of a language possess which makes it possible for them to communicate with each other.

Three disciplines are concerned with the systematic study of 'meaning' in itself:
psychology, philosophy and linguistics.

Psychologists:

- how individual humans learn,
- how they retain, recall, or lose information;
- how they classify, make judgments and solve problems.

Philosophers of language:

- How we know,
- How any particular fact that we know or accept as true is related to other possible facts – what must be antecedent (a presupposition) to that fact and what is a likely consequence, or entailment of it; what statements are mutually contradictory, which sentence express the same meaning in different words, and which are unrelated.

Linguistics:

- Identifying the meaningful elements of specific language, for example, English words like *paint* and *happy* like the *-er* of *painter* and the *un-* of *unhappy*.
- It is concerned with describing how such elements go together to express more complex meanings – in phrases like:

the unhappy painter

the painter is unhappy

- and telling how these are related to each other.

1.2 The nature of language

- All animals have some system for communicating with other members of their species.
- Humans have a language which allows them to produce and understand ever-new messages and to do so without any outside stimulus.
- Humans' language differs from these animal communication systems in many crucial ways:

First: Stimulus-free

- Animals can communicate only in response to some particular stimulus. (Bees)
- Human alone are able to talk about vast numbers of things which come from accumulated knowledge, memory and imagination. Human language is stimulus-free.

Second: creativity

- While animals have only a fixed repertoire of messages, human language is creative: we are always producing new utterances which others understand; we comprehend new sentences which others have produced.
- The importance of stimulus-free and creativity is often overlooked:
- Human mind deals easily and frequently with what does not exist (aliens, unicorn), or what does not yet to exist (an architect envisions a building not yet erected, a writer writing about imaginary stories and characters)
- Also concrete and abstract

Third: Productivity

Human utterances are composed of interchangeable units on 2 levels:

- a. an utterance consists of words in a particular sequence,
- b. and a word consists of sound-units (phonemes) in a particular order.

A small number of phonemes, which are meaningless, combine to make a vast number of meaningful words.

Example: *pat*, *tap*, and *apt*. (same 3 phonemes arranged differently to refer to different meanings)

Fourth: Arbitrariness

There is no natural relation between the word *apple* and what it refers to. (Arabic and English)

A child acquires the language which is used by the members of its family.

1.3 Language and the individual:

- Every human child learns the language of the society in which it grows up.
- A child acquires the fundamentals of that language in the first five or six years of life (follows a general timetable in the process of acquisition).
- Just as the baby sits up, then crawls, so the child, at about the age of twelve months, begin to imitate its parents' ways of naming what is in the environment (*bed*, *bottle*, *doll*, etc.)
- 18 months: two-word utterances (*Baby up*)
- Soon the utterances become complex and longer.
- Because we must acquire our native language so early in life, our knowledge is mostly implicit.

The linguist's task is to explicate this implicit knowledge.

- **Phonology** is the knowledge, or the description, of how speech sounds are organized in the particular language – there are units called phonemes which combine in various possible ways (but not all possible ways) to express meaningful units such as words. These phonemes contrast with one another to make different units of meaning.
- **Syntax** is the knowledge, or the description of the classes of words, sometimes called parts of speech, and of how members of these classes go together to form phrases and sentences.
- Syntax deals with grammatical categories like tense, number, aspect – categories somehow in all languages.
- **Morphology** is the description or the knowledge of word formation: the account of different forms of the 'same' word (*cat*, *cats*; *connect*, *connecting*, *connected*) and the derivation of different words which share a basic meaning (*connect*, *disconnect*, *connection*).

- So a speaker knows how to combine words into complex sentences and grasp the meanings of complex structure that other speakers produce.

1.4 Demonstrating semantic knowledge

- How can we explain the speaker's knowledge of meanings?
- Ten aspects of semantic knowledge any speaker has:

1 - Speakers know whether something is or is not meaningful in their language. (**anomaly**)

1a Henry drew a picture.

1b Henry laughed.

1c The picture laughed.

1d Picture a Henry drew.

2 - Speakers of a language generally agree as to when two sentences have essentially the same meaning and when they do not. (**paraphrasing**)

2a Rebecca got home before Robert.

2b Robert got home before Rebecca.

2c Robert arrived at home after Rebecca.

3d Rebecca got home later than Robert.

3 - Speakers generally agree when two words have essentially the same meaning – in a given context. (**synonymy**)

3a Where did you purchase these tools?

use buy release modify take

3b At the end of the street we saw two enormous statues.

pink smooth nice huge original

4 - Speakers recognize when the meaning of one sentence contradicts another sentence. (**contradictory**)

- If one is true the other must be false.

4a Edgar is married.

4b Edgar is fairly rich.

4c Edgar is not longer young.

4d Edgar is a bachelor.

5 - Speakers generally agree when two words have opposite meanings in a given context. (**antonyms**)

5a Betty cut a thick slice of cake.

bright new soft thin wet

5b The train departs at 12:25

arrives leaves waits swerves

6.a Synonyms and antonyms have to have some common element of meaning in order to be the same or different. (**semantic feature**)

6.b Words can have some element of meaning without being **synonymous** or **antonymous**.

6a street lane road oath house avenue

6b buy take use steal acquire inherit

7 - Some sentences have double meanings; (i.e., they can be interpreted in two ways). jokes (**ambiguity**)

7a Marjorie doesn't care for her parakeet.

(doesn't like it; doesn't take care of it)

7b Marjorie took the sick parakeet to a small animal hospital.

(small hospital for animals; hospital for small animals)

8 - Speakers know how language is used when people interact. (asking a question or making a remark). (**adjacency pair**)

8a When did you last see my brother?

Ten minutes ago. Last Tuesday. Very nice.

Around noon. I think it was on the first of June.

8b There's a great new comedy at the Oldtown Playhouse.

So I've heard. What's it called? When did it open?

So do I. are you sure it's a comedy?

9 - Speakers are aware that two statements may be related in such a way that if one is true, the other must also be true. (**entailment**)

9a There are tulips in the garden.

9b There are flowers in the garden.

9c The ladder is too short to reach the roof.

9d The ladder isn't long enough to reach the roof.

10- Speakers know that the message conveyed in one sentence

may presuppose other pieces of knowledge. also be accepted as true. (**presupposition**)

10a Andy Murfee usually drives his Datsun to work.

10b There is a person named Andy Murfee.

10c Andy Murfee works.

10d There is a Datsun that belong to Andy Murfee.

10e Andy Murfee knows how to drive an automobile.

These ten aspects to show the implicit knowledge that we have as native speakers in our language

Chapter 2 Language in Use

2.1. Pragmatics

- **Pragmatics** is a branch of linguistics which is concerned with the study of meaning of the speaker. It is the study of relation between linguistic signs and users of these signs.

How are Pragmatics and Semantics similar and different?

- **Similarity:** Both of them study the meaning.
- **Difference:**
 - **Pragmatics** is mainly concerned with the person's ability to:
 - a) derive meanings from specific kinds of speech situations,
 - b) to recognize what the speaker is referring to,
 - c) to relate new information, to what as gone before,
 - d) to interpret what is said from background knowledge about the speaker and the topic of discourse.
 - **Semantics** is mainly concerned with a speaker's competence to use language system in producing meaningful utterances and comprehending utterances produced by others.
 - Various scholars can't decide where the boundary between semantics and pragmatics is.

2.2 Natural and Conventional Signs

- A **language** is a complex system of symbols or signs, that are shared by members of a community and through which people communicate. These symbols may be spoken, written, or signed with the hands.
- People who use these symbols to communicate constitute a community, a language community- Saudi community, Egyptian community, etc.
- Within that community, there are differences in which the language is used → dialects/languages.
- The totality of common activities, institutions, and beliefs make up the **culture** of that society.
- Native speakers of English belong to the Western Culture, we belong to the Islamic culture... Their culture includes for example eating with the left hand vs right hand, wearing a neck tie vs a thobe, etc.
- The point is that communication takes place against a large common background.
- **What are natural signs? Conventional signs?**
- **Natural signs** convey messages unintentionally to communicate to someone which are natural in nature.
 - **Example:** Footprint (person passed by), black cloud (possibility of rain), treetops moving, our own bodies (earaches, hunger pangs, head nodding) signs and smells.

- **Conventional signs** convey messages intentionally which are conventional and produced by humans.
 - **Example:** horns, whistles, sirens. Also, visual devices such as the location of a telephone, a slippery road, traffic light, road signs, etc. *None of these uses language.*
- Conventional signs have human senders as well as human receivers; each has an intention and an interpretation.
- **What are the processes of a message to be conveyed?**
- There are **three** steps to get information conveyed:

1) Perception:

- The first step is that observer should perceive what others say and what he reads.
- the sign and the observer share a context of **place** and **time** in which the sign attracts his/her attention.

Example: You are driving on a 200-km road. You see lightening not far away. What does it mean to you?

2) Identification:

- We rely on our previous experiences which are stored in our memories. If we recognize a phenomenon that means we have seen it before.
- The second step is that speaker should identify about what he talks or what he reads.
- We identify new things either by previously mentioned sign or similar to it. A sign reflects to something being common between the speaker and the listener.

3) Interpretation:

- -So, we interpret different meanings because of the context in which the *utterance* occurs.

Example :

- **Conventional signs can have different meanings in different contexts or different circumstances.**

Example: The whistle made by: the policeman, or a hotel doorman summoning a taxi, or referee. Is it the same?

Answer: They are not the same. Their different meanings are due to the difference of context in which the signal occurs. They have different intentions and are interpreted differently.

“The chicken is ready to eat.”

2.3. Linguistic Signs:

- **What is meant by linguistic signs? What is the relationship between them and communication?**

- -Linguistic signs refer to **words** such as *girl, write, weather*, and **similar to natural and conventional signs**.
- -The speaker and listener (writer and reader) make communication.
- These words do not have meanings but rather are capable of conveying meanings to those who can *perceive, identify and interpret*.
- Words go together to form sentences which in turn are capable of conveying meanings.
- **Language use**
 - Let's consider the matter of perception, identification, and interpretation with respect to language use:
- **Step One: Perceiving:**
 - In order to grasp what somebody says, we must first perceive the utterance (HEAR a spoken utterance, SEE a written one)
- **Difficulties in perceiving a spoken message:**
 - 1) Too much noises in the environment, too great distance between the speaker and hearer, insufficient volume in the speaker's delivery, poor connection as in telephones, etc.)
 - 2) In terms of written discourse: the written message must be clear, sufficiently lighted and have the reader attention.
- **Step Two: Identification:**
 - -Hearing and seeing are not sufficient. *What if you don't know the language*
 - Sharing common ground [identifying] (speaker and hearer use same vocabulary, grammar, the dialect spoken, etc.). For example, different dialects such Saudi, Egyptian, and Moroccan (partial mastery of language due to:
 - a) different pronunciation
 - b) different vocabulary items
 - c) syntactic constructions which are not familiar,
- **will lead to disturbance of the process of identification.**
 - Suppose that we hear an utterance, know the language, know the meanings of the words and sentences. We still may **not fully comprehend** what is said because **we don't know what the utterance is about (we don't know what is being referred to):**
 - A very important part of successful communication with others, we should derive some information from what has been previously said/ read (i.e. **the discourse context**)
 - Also, from knowledge of the speaker and circumstances in the environment (i.e. **physical-social context**).
- **Stage Three: Interpretation:**
 - a) As speakers, we use background information to interpret the message.
 - b) relate new information to old one.
 - c) Give and take in the conversation.

- **Question: Is it possible to interpret without identifying?**
 - Yes, by using the physical context even though we don't understand completely what he has said before.
- **Question: Is it possible to interpret without perceiving?**
 - Yes, sometimes without hearing everything said we tend to comprehend.
Put / travel / buy

2.4. Utterance and Sentence:

- As said earlier, when the whistle has different meanings in different contexts so different pieces of language can have **different meanings** in **different contexts**.

Examples:

"I am hungry" said by:

- 1) Someone has not eaten all day. (A beggar)
 - 2) Child not to go to bed.
 - 3) A man to someone else to eat together
- The three events **have something in common** and yet they are **different**:
 - a) They indicate different intentions.
 - b) They are liable to be interpreted differently because the situations and participants are different.
 - c) As a result, these are three utterances which contain the meaning of one sentence. Each utterance has an extra meaning or meanings because of the circumstances in which it occurs.
 - d) **An Utterance** is any stretch of talk, by one person, and is created by speaking or (writing) a piece of language.
 - e) **Sentences** are abstract grammatical elements obtained from utterances.
 - **Sentence meaning: is determined by the language.**

Utterance	Sentence
A particular act of speaking or writing	It is not an event. It is a language construction in a particular sequence which is meaningful in that particular language..
An utterance is typically a part a larger discourse (conversation, a story, love letter, etc).	We write sentences by using italics: <i>I am hungry</i> .
We write an utterance with quotation marks "I am hungry".	
Each utterance is an act of speech or writing : it is a specific event , at a particular time and place and involving at least one person, the one who produces the utterance.	
An utterance happens just once if it was spoken and then it ceases to exist unless it is recorded. A written utterance is intended to last: a. for a short time such as in shopping list. b. much longer as in the case of a book.	

- **Why should we distinguish between a sentence and an utterance:**

- a) Because it is important to recognize meanings:
- b) that are communicated to us in language and
- c) which meanings we derive from the contexts in which language is used.
- d) to distinguish between a **linguistic meaning** (i.e. what is communicated by particular pieces of language) and **utterance meaning** (i.e. what certain individual meant by saying such-and-such in a particular place, at a particular time, and a certain individual/s) .

a joke, sarcastic, or a straightforward report, or any other possibility

- **An Utterance** is often a part of **discourse**: a conversation, a part of a lecture, a poem, a short story, a business letter, etc.
- A spoken discourse is any act of speech that occurs in a given place and during a given period of time.
- A written discourse may be the record of something that has been spoken, or it may be originated for the purpose of being performed aloud, like a play or speech, or it may exist without ever having been spoken, like most articles and books.

Practice 2.2 (Context and meaning):

- The meaning of any language symbol depends on the **context in which it occurs**.
- Successful operation and quick recovery occur in both groups → have different meanings→ because of the words which accompany them in the context they appear in.
- **Implicature**
- **Implicature**: is a bridge constructed by the hearer/reader to relate one utterance to some previous utterance, and often the hearer/reader makes this connection unconsciously.

Example:

- A: "This was the site of the old Stanwick Theater. The stage was over here on the right and the lobby was over there on the left".
- What is the image that you have now about the speaker and the hearer?
- Standing in one place, talking about a theater that used to be standing in the place where they are talking.
- a) Barbara: How did you do on the examination?
- b) Barry: I think I'll drop the course.
- **Implicature**: the hearer's knowledge of the world would let us know that a theatre has a stage and a lobby. If the speaker were to say " This was the site of Old Stanwick Theater. **It had a stage and a lobby**. The stage was over there ... we would say the speaker is pedantic!!!!
- Over there, on your left →without being present on the scene, we wouldn't be able to know what is being referred to. These element are known as **Deictic** which we derive from them meanings about place and time of utterance.

2.6 Non-Verbal communication

- **Non-verbal communication** means the message is vocally transmitted but not via spoken language.
 - How is it so?
 - Transmitting less systematic messages to one another by means of audible and visible signs that are **not part of the language**.
 - There are **two** types of non-verbal communication:
- 1) **Paralanguage:** ways of using **voice** vocally to convey message. It is **not** considered as signs or part of a language.
 - Examples: sh-sh, m-m-m, huh? , pst-pst. To indicate a request for attention, a call for silence, a request for repetition, etc.
 - Also, crying, laughing →all convey meanings.
 - These ways of using voice **cannot** be considered as signs but they are indeed **expressive** and communicative in a **secondary sense**.
 - The failure to use language- silence- at a particular juncture can likewise be **expressive**.
 - 2) **Gestures: visible signs:** body language or body movement to convey message to the perceiver.

Examples:

- 1) nodding the head in response to an utterance/ to close a conversation
 - 2) pretending to yawn →to imply that your boring to make someone leave
 - 3) crossing one's fingers →a hope for success.
 - 4) pounding on a table with two fingers
- Combination of paralanguage and gestures can communicate something about the **mood** of the speaker; anger, boredom, nervousness, etc. so you better leave the place.
 - Gestures, the volume of sound can be quite **different in different societies**. What is meaningful or mild in one culture may be **rude** in another (finger pointing)
 - Face to face communication event contains **linguistic** and **nonlinguistic** elements like:
- a) **Linguistic:**
 - 1) vocal and verbal- words put together to form utterances (representing sentences)
 - 2) vocal and non-verbal- prosody, the intonation and accent with which utterances are spoken
 - b) **Non-Linguistic:**
 - 1) Vocal- paralanguage, the "tone of voice"
 - 2) non-vocal- distance maintained, appearance, gestures, silence.

Chapter 3 The Dimensions of Meaning

Introduction:

A **linguistic expression** or **form** is anything meaningful in a language.

Three units of meaning (i.e. Meaning is expressed by):

1. **Morphemes** (may be less than a word either free or bound (i.e. affixes).
2. **Lexemes** (roughly speaking, words and idioms).
3. **Sentences**.

Lexemes	Function words
1. A lexeme may consist of one or more meaningful units called morphemes .	They contribute grammatical meanings to utterances.
2. They have semantic relations outside the language.	
3. Every lexeme is a combination of form and meaning .	

We can recognize **three aspects of meaning** in **lexemes**:

1. The relation to phenomena **outside** language.
2. The relation to people's attitudes and feelings.
3. The relation to other lexemes.

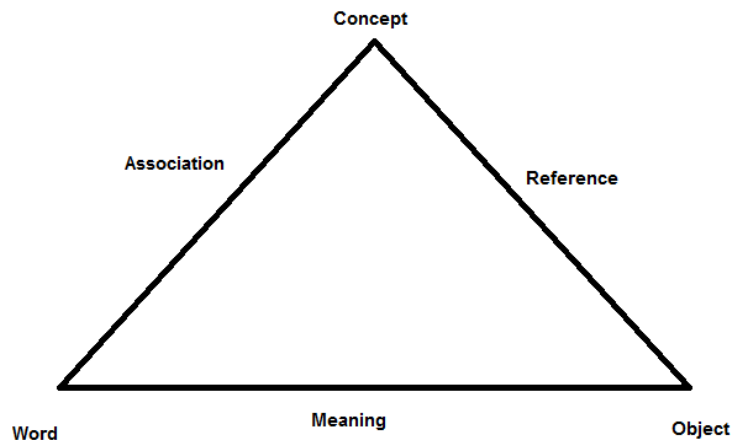
Example:

1. Two lexemes that have the **same form** (spelling and pronunciation) are **homonyms**.
2. A single lexeme with a wide range of meanings is **polysemous**.

3.1 Reference and Denotation:

- Words like *tree*, *door*, *apple*, etc. have an obvious relation to objects and events in the world around us.
- **Children** learning their native language learn words in association with observable items and situations and events. This simple fact give rise to an overly simple idea about what **meaning** is.
- We are likely to think that a language consists of a large number of **words** and each of these words has a direct **correlation with something** outside of language, which is **its meaning**.
- And since we are communicating with one another through language, it must be that we all have the same **idea** or **concept** associated with each word.

- The best elaboration of this view was made by **Ogden and Richards (1923)** who explained meaning in terms of what is in people's minds. (The Mentalistic Theory of Meaning).
- Their explanation centers on this scheme:



Ogden and Richards called:

- The bond between word and concept an “association”,
- The bond between concept and object “reference”,
- The bond between object and word “meaning”.

When we hear or read a word, we often form a mental picture of what the word represents and so we equate 'concept' with a mental picture.

Mental picture of some words such as *door*: *what is the mental image you have of a door?* It does not take any time to understand the meaning .. but what is the image you visualized inside your brain when I said door? I will hear your answers to that: a revolving door? A folding door? A sliding door? A wooden door?

Ok, what about words like PRETEND, PROBLEM *what is the image that you formed to these words?*

1. The meaning of a door is **more than what is included in a single image**.
2. and **your knowledge** of these words **is much more** than the ability to relate them to single objects.
3. you can use these words successfully in a large number of situations because you have the **knowledge** that makes it possible.

Reference	Denotation
Definition of <u>Reference</u>: is the relation between a language expression (such as this door, both doors,) and whatever the expression refers to in a particular situation of language use, <u>including</u> what a speaker may imagine. (the relation <u>between language and the outside world</u>). Reference is the way speakers and hearers <u>use</u> a linguistic expression successfully. Explanation: Reference is the association of specific vocabulary with specific things/actions and characteristics. (a relationship between a particular object and an expression used in an utterance to refer to that entity). Examples of references: (this presentation), (my classmates).	Definition of <u>Denotation</u>: Denotation is the literal / actual meaning of a word (found in a dictionary such as <u>dog, door,</u> etc.). It is the potential of a word like door or dog to enter into such language expressions such as: 1. <u>This dog</u> is a Dalmatian. 2. My children have just acquired a <u>dog</u>. 3. <u>Several dogs</u> were fighting over a bone. It is the <u>knowledge</u> they have that makes their use successful. Explanation: Denotation identifies the <u>central aspect of word meaning which everybody generally agrees about</u>. It is possible to think of lexical items that have a more or less fixed denotation ("sun," denoting the nearest star)

The problems with the Mentalistic Theory:

1. not all words can be associated with mental images.
2. some words have a range of meanings **greater** than any single association.
3. The biggest problem to this theory is: that they don't have any access to other people's minds.
4. Also, words are not the only semantic units. Meanings can be expressed by units that may be smaller than words **morphemes**. Not only that meanings can be expressed in **units- sentences** –that are larger than words.

Example:

- a) *The dog bit a man.*
- b) *The man bit a dog.*

Both contain the same words but they don't express the same meanings.

5. Furthermore, meaning is more than denotation. People not only talk and write to describe things, they also express their feelings, opinions, favorable and unfavorable.

Language furnishes the means for expressing a wide range of attitudes which is called **connotation**.

3.2 Connotation: is the attitudes/feelings that a lexeme may evoke.

How does a particular person/society value a certain thing?

- The relation to people's attitudes and feelings that a lexeme can evoke.
- **Example: dog to Christian and to Muslims.**
- It is the pragmatic aspect of a linguistic expression.

It is important to know that part of any meaning of a word is its connotation.

- The effective or emotional associations an expression elicits, which clearly need not be the same for all people who know and use the word.
- They vary according to the experiences of individuals but some words have shared connotations.
- It is the degree of formality or style of the use of an expression.
- Knowledge of what associations are favorable and which are not according to the speech community.
- E.g. (fiddle and violin)

Violin	Fiddle
Denotation: The same denotation	Denotation: The same denotation
Connotation: usual, neutral term	Connotation: for humor or lack of esteem

What is the difference between denotation and connotation?

- **Denotation** identifies the central aspect of word meaning, which everybody generally agrees about.
- **Connotation** refers to the personal aspect of meaning the emotion association that the word arouses.
- A stubborn person may be described as being either *strong-willed* or *pig-headed*. Although these have the same literal meaning (i.e. *stubborn*), *strong-willed* connotes admiration for the level of someone's will, while *pig-headed* connotes frustration in dealing with someone. Likewise, *used car* and *previously owned car* have the same literal meaning, but many dealerships prefer the latter, since it is thought to have fewer *negative connotations*.

3.3 Sense relations:

- Meaning is more than denotation and connotation.
- Words are sneaky. They change meaning when you put them somewhere else.
(the relational aspect)
- This is called **sense relations**: the meaning of any expression varies with context: what other expressions it occurs with and what expressions it contrasts with.
 - The set of relations a sense contrasts with other expressions of a language at the word level or at the sentence level.
 - The implicit knowledge of how lexemes are associated with each other.
 - The meaning that a lexeme has because of these relationships is the *sense* of that lexeme.
 - Part of this relationship is seen in the way words do, or do not, go together meaningfully.
 - It makes sense to say:
 - a) *John walked*
 - b) *An hour elapsed.*
 - But it does not make sense to say:
 - a) **john elapsed*
 - b) *an hour walked.*
 - Because part of the meaning of *elapse* is that it goes with *hour, minute, second*, and *day*, but not with *John*.

Two types of linkage noticed:

Syntagmatic relations	Paradigmatic Relations
the way words <u>do or do not go</u> together meaningfully. Definition of syntagmatic relations: The mutual association of two or more words in a sequence so that the meaning of each is <u>affected by the others and together their meaning contribute to the meaning of the longer unit</u> (phrase or sentence). a. Verbs: “play” can co-occur with “game” in “let’s play a game”. “sit” can co-occur with “chair” in “sit on the chair”. b. Adjectives: adjectives can have different senses. Ex: happy	are relations of choice. We <u>choose from among of a number of possible words</u> that can fill the same blank. (words may be similar in meaning or have little in common but, each is different from the other). “play” can also co-occur with “soccer, cards, dead, ...”) depending on the choice of the speaker and his intensions.

1. when attached to the feature [human] it means 'who enjoys happiness' such as a <u>happy family</u> but when attached to the feature [event], it means 'that produces happiness' as in a <u>happy experience</u> .	
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3.4 Lexical and Grammatical Meanings

○ *A dog barked*

- This is a meaningful sentence which is composed of smaller meaningful parts. These meaningful parts are:

1- Referring Expression:

- It is a piece of language that is used AS IF is linked to something outside language, some living or dead entity or concept or group of entities or concepts, e.g. a girl.
- The entity to which the referring expression is linked is its **referent**.

2- Predicate: (an activity associated)

- The use of language generally involves naming or referring to some entity and saying, or predicating, something about that entity, e.g. The girl screamed.
- A group of words that come after the subject in a declarative sentence and contributes to the meaning of a sentence.

3- Grammatical Meaning:

- Every language has a grammatical system, and grammatical systems usually have a wide range of characteristics that can manipulate meanings of utterances, this obviously can be best explained by how a sentence differs from other sentences that have the same or similar referring expression and the same predicate; the grammatical system of English makes possible the expression of meanings like these:

Statement vs. question:

a girl screamed.

Did a girl scream?

Affirmative vs. negative:

a girl screamed.

A girl did not scream. no girl screamed.

Past vs. present:

a girl screamed.

A girl screams.

Singular vs. plural:

a girl screamed.

Some girls screamed.

Indefinite vs. definite:

a girl screamed.

The girl screamed.

Grammatical meanings are expressed in various ways:

- The arrangement of words (referring expression before predicate).
- Grammatical affixes (like the – s in dogs and – ed in barked).
- Grammatical words (like do in “did” – not – the).

4. Lexical Meaning:

- As the sentence is essentially composed of smaller meaningful parts. These parts in their own are lexemes, that's why their meanings are not grammatical but lexical.

Example: *bark* and *dog* their meanings are **not** grammatical but **lexical** with associations outside language. They are **lexemes**.

A lexeme: is a minimal unit that can take part in referring or predicating.

- All the lexemes of a language constitute the **lexicon** of the language.
- And all the lexemes you know make up your own lexicon.
- It is a conjunction of **form** and **meaning** in referring or predicating.
- It is easy to determine since in writing it is a sequence of letters and in speech it is a sequence of phonemes.
- A lexeme may consist of just one meaningful part like these (arm – chair – happy) in this case, it is also a morpheme.
- Or of more than one meaningful part like these (armchair – unhappy)
 - 1) *go – going – went – gone.*
 - 2) *put up with – kick the bucket – grab by the nuts.*
- In 1) there are four forms with four different meanings, but they have a shared meaning which is lexical and other meanings of a grammatical nature added to the lexical meaning. These four forms constitute one lexeme namely (GO).
- In 2) the meaning in grab by the nuts is not the combination of their separate meaning. Therefore, it is a single lexeme in the sense of “leverage and control”.
- Lexeme: MAP while *map* and *maps* are different word-forms of the lexeme MAP.

3.5 Morphemes:

- The morpheme is the technical term for the minimal meaningful part like (shower – curtain – joy).
- They cannot be divided into something smaller that is meaningful.
- These morphemes are free morphemes that occur by themselves.
- But, the element un- in unhappy and –ist in guitarist are bound morphemes. They are always attached to something else.
- Lexemes can consist of one or more meaningful parts:

joyful – bathtub – staircase – lemonade.

3.6 Homonymy and Polysemy:

I. Homonyms are:

- a) Two lexemes with the same form (identical in pronunciation and spelling) but, their meaning is totally different/unrelated, such as “**bank**” = a financial institution and “**bank**” = the edge of a stream.
- b) In other pairs of lexemes, pronunciation is identical but, spelling is different like “to” and “too” and “two” or “scene” and “seen” or “flew” (from fly), “flu” (“influenza”).
- 1) **Homophone** is a word pronounced the same as another but differing in meaning, whether spelled the same way or not, as *heir* and *air*, *meet* and *meat*.
- 2) **Homographs**: Two words which have different pronunciation but with the same spelling such as “**bow**” an arrow shooting instrument and “**bow**” bending as a form of respect, “**Lead**” the metal and “**lead**” to conduct or “**bear**” to carry; support and “**bear**” animal.

II. Polysemy is:

- a) diversity of meanings.
- b) A lexeme that has a wide range of related meanings is polysemous, such as: “head” of a person. “head” of a company. A “head” of lettuce.
- c) Their meanings can be seen as derived from the basic one either reflecting the general shape of the human head or the relation of the head to the rest of the body.
- d) In dictionaries, polysemous items are made into a single entry and **homophonous** lexemes are made into two or more separate entries.
 - Examples:
 - a) bug INSECT
 - b) bug ILLNESS tummy/stomach bug
 - c) bug COMPUTER a fault in the system
 - d) bug ANNOY to annoy someone
 - e) bug (ENTHUSIASM)
 - ❖ There is a category, called "complementary polysemy" where a single verb has multiple senses, which are related to one another in some predictable way. An example is "**bake**," which can be interpreted as a **change-of-state verb** or as a **creation verb** in different circumstances.
 - a) "John baked the potato." (*change-of-state*)
 - b) "John baked a cake." (*creation*).

Dictionaries give polysemous items single entries, while homophonous lexemes are given different entries, as a means of distinction.

3.7 Lexical Ambiguity:

- A word or a phrase is ambiguous if it has two or more synonyms that are **not** themselves synonyms of each other.
- E.g.:** “coach” is synonym to “trainer” and “bus” while both are not synonyms of each other.

- When two homonyms can occur in the same position/place in an utterance, the result is lexical ambiguity. **E.g.:**
 - 1) *I was on my way to the bank.*
 - 2) *She cannot bear children.*
 - 3) *The chicken is ready to eat.*
- Of course, ambiguity is not likely to be sustained in a longer discourse.
- Some homonyms belong to different lexical categories and therefore, do **not** give rise to ambiguity. **For example:** *seen* and *scene*.
- Ambiguity occurs also because a long linguistic form has a literal sense and a figurative sense. **For example:**

-There is a skeleton in our closet.

➤ It can mean:

- 1) an unfortunate event that is kept a family secret, therefore, considered as one lexeme, or
- 2) Its literal meaning (a phrase composed of several lexemes).

-I smell a rat.

- 1) The feeling of something going wrong
- 2) The literal meaning

Syntactic ambiguity:

- **Syntactic ambiguity** arises when a complex phrase or a sentence can be parsed in more than one way. “He ate the cookies on the couch,” **for example**, could mean that he ate those cookies which were on the couch (as opposed to those that were on the table), or it could mean that he was sitting on the couch when he ate the cookies.
- Demonstrations of ambiguity between alternate syntactic structures underlying a sentence:
 - 1) *The man saw the boy with the binoculars.*
 - 2) *They are hunting dogs.*
 - 3) *While the man was hunting the deer ran through the forest.*

3.8 Sentence meaning:

How can we explain what sentence meaning is?

❖ There are **two** points:

- 1) The meaning of a sentence derives from the meanings of its **constituent lexemes** and from the **grammatical meaning** it contains. So if you know all the lexical and grammatical meanings expressed in a sentence, you know the meanings of the sentence and vice versa.
- 2) At least if the sentence is a statement, if you know the meaning of the sentence, you know what conditions are necessary in the world for that sentence to be true.

Chapter 4 Semantic Roles

4.1. Sentence and proposition:

- ❖ **A Sentence** is a grammatically complete string of words expressing a complete thought. It is a grammatical unit of one or more words that expresses an independent statement, question, request, command, exclamation, etc., and that typically has a subject as well as a predicate, as in:

- **Compare these language expressions:**

- 1a. We walk in the park. (A complete sentence)
- 1b. our walk in the park. (Incomplete sentence)
- 1c. for us to walk in the park. (Incomplete sentence)

- *But all the three expressions have the same semantic content (i.e. the same relation to an action or possible action performed in a certain place by two or more people, one of whom is the writer or the speaker).*

- The **semantic content** shared by the three expressions is a **proposition**.

- ❖ **A Proposition** is the content of a sentence that affirms or denies something and is capable of being true or false

1. Is something abstract but meaningful.

2. Can be expressed in different sentences and in parts of sentences, perhaps with differences of focus but always with the same basic meaning.

- The **difference is grammatical not semantic:**

1a. asserts something, makes a statement.

1b and 1c can be part of statements as in:

1b. We enjoyed our walk in the park.

1c. It's not too late for us to walk in the park.

Both 1b and 1c **do not** make assertion by themselves.

A proposition can be expressed in different sentences:

a. two different sentences conveying the same message:

a- Helen put on a sweater.

b- Helen put a sweater on.

Here these two different sentences in English convey **the same message**- that is they express the **same proposition**.

- 3a. Richard wrote the report.
- 3b. Richard is the one who wrote the report.
- 3c. The report was written by Richard.
- 3d. The report is what Richard wrote.

The four sentences express the same single proposition but they differ in Focus.

- 3a has **no particular focus**.
- 3b and 3c give special emphasis to Richard.
- 3d emphasizes *the report*.
- A proposition **does not have a focus**. A sentence may add a focus and may add the focus **in different places and in different ways**.

Now consider this sentence:

4. Richard wrote a report and Helen did, too.

This sentence contains **two propositions**.

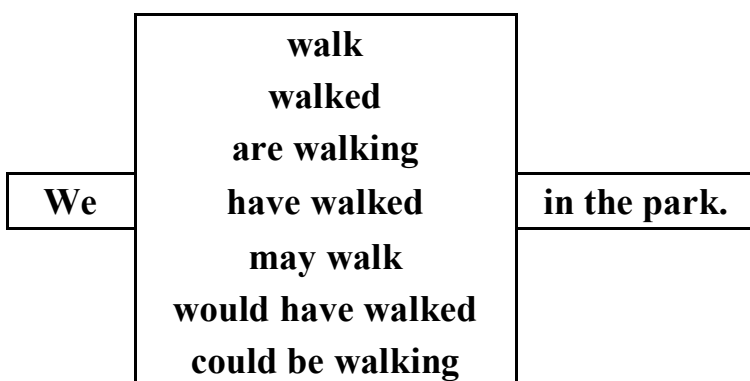
The first- Richard wrote a report- expressed in a straightforward way.

The second—Helen wrote a report—through the function words *did* and *too*.

- Schematically, we can say that any sentence can be expressed in different utterances, produced by different people at different times and in different places.

Now we will consider Inflection separately from the proposition.

Inflection:



Inflection: Kinds of modification. It includes:

Tense (the distinction between present *walk* and past *walked*, for instance)

Aspect (*are walking*, *have walked*).

Modality (*may walk*, *could walk*, *should walk*, among other possibilities)

So, a general scheme for a simple sentence has these parts:

Inflection + Proposition (+ Focus).

Tense

Aspect

Modality

→1. The description of a proposition is a **semantic analysis**.

→2. The description of a sentence is a **syntactic analysis**:

- a. it includes an account of the lexemes and function words in a sentence.
 - b. describing how these combine into phrases, and
 - c. showing the functions that these lexemes and phrases have in the sentence.
- b. sentence functions are recognized: **subject, predicate, object, complement, and adverbial.**

TABLE 4.1 The syntactic analysis of sentences

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Object</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>
A window	broke.		
Tom	broke	a window.	
Our dog	is		under the house.
Denise	put	marmalade	on her toat.
Albert	sends	e-mail	to his friends.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Complement</i>	
I	am	thirsty.	
Hector	is	afraid	of the dark.
Mr Whipple	is	a banker.	

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Indirect Object</i>	<i>Drect Object</i>
Albert	sends	his friends	e-mail.

Semantic Analysis

- The semantic analysis deals with meaning, the proposition expressed in the sentence, not necessarily with all the function words in the sentence.
- In semantic analysis, we first separate Inflection from Proposition. So,
 - 5a. *Albert sends his friends e-mail.*
 - 5b. *Albert sent his friends e-mail.*
- Both have the same proposition [Albert, send, Albert's friends, e-mail].
- Syntactically, the 5a adds Present Tense to that proposition and 5b adds Past Tense.
- When Inflection- including Tense- is separated from Proposition, we see that the forms of the verb *be* (*am, is, are, was, were*) have **no** meaning. They are part of the syntactic structure of sentences but **not of the semantic structure**.
- In semantic analysis every proposition contains one predicate and a varying number of referring expressions (noun phrases) called **arguments** such as *a window, Albert, the house*, etc.

4.2 Semantic Roles:

- A semantic role is the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main verb in a clause.
- Every simple sentence—every proposition—has one predicate and a varying number of referring expressions, or **arguments**.
- Different predicates—verbs, adjectives, prepositions—can be described according to the number of referring expressions, or arguments,

❖ Valency Theory:

- Valency theory is a description of the semantic potential of predicates in terms of the number and types of arguments which may co-occur with them.
- **There are different types of Valency:**
- **Valencies of Zero, One, Two, valencies of Three and more.**

Valency Zero:

- The verbs that do not require referent to be named in sentence.
- Examples: weather verbs and weather adjectives.
- It is *raining*.
- It *sleeted* (yesterday).
- It has been *thundering*.
- It is *snowing*.
- It is *lightening*.

Valency One:

- When the verb has subject but no object.

One-argument predicates.

- Tom *left*.
- Adam *laughed*.
- My brother *snored*.
- Ali *walks*.
- Selena *slept*.

- Valency One: Actor

- The role of an argument that performs some action without affecting any other entity.
- The *dog* is **sleeping**.
- All *animals* **breathe**.
- *Larry* **laughed**.
- *Peter* **sneezed**.
- *You* were **snoring**.
- The *earth* **rotates** (on its axis).

Actors: *dog, animals, Larry, Peter, You, earth.*

Action: *sleep, breathe, laugh, sneeze, snore, rotate.*

Valency One: Affected

- The role of an argument that under goes a change due to some **event** or is affected by some other entity
- **Grandfather** died (last week).
- A **volcano** erupted.
- **John** fainted.
- The **cake** fell.

Valency One: Theme

The role of an argument that is the topic of a predicate that does not express action – a stative predicate.

This *soup* is **cold**.

Terry is **impatient**.

John was rather **reckless**.

The *teacher* is **smart**.

Description: **cold, impatient, reckless, smart**

Theme: *soup, Terry, John, teacher*

Valency One: Identity

- The role of an argument that is the predicate provides an identity for the entity named by the subject.
- This *man* is a **carpenter**.
- *Dextrose and fructose* are **sugars**.
- *Eddy Eckstein* is the **village idiot**.

Identity: **carpenter, sugars, village idiot**

Theme: *man, Dextrose and fructose, Eddy Eckstein*

What is the difference between the following two sentences?

- Boris is **Russian**. Theme + description.

- Boris is **a Russian**. Theme + identity.

Valency Two

- Most verbs take a subject and an object;

Two-argument predicates.

- **Chris** is making an **omelet**.
- The **cat** dug a **hole**.
- **Jennie** crossed the **street**.

Valency Two: Affecting

- The role of an argument that, without any action, affects another entity.
- The cat killed a **rat**.
- I broke the **window**.
- Bert hit **Harry**.

Definition: of Semantic Roles

- 1) **Actor:** The role of an argument that performs some action without affecting any other entity. **Sylvia** left.
- 2) **Affected:** The role of an argument that undergoes a change due to some event of is affected by some other entity. **A window** broke, Tom broke **a window**.
- 3) **Affecting:** The role of an argument that, without any action, affects another entity. Betty likes **opera**, **Opera** delights Betty.
- 4) **Agent:** The role of an argument that by its action affects some other entity with volition. **Tom** broke a window, **David** cooked the pie.
- 5) **Associate:** The role of an argument that tells the status or identity of another argument, the **theme**. Roger is **a student**.
- 6) **Effect (Patient):** The role of an argument that comes into existence through the action of the predicate, often undergoing some change in state. Linda baked **a pie**, The sun melted **the ice**, Linda cut back **these bushes**.
- 7) **Place:** The role of an argument that names the location in which the action of the predicate occurs. The fireman climbed **a ladder**, The books are **under the table**. We prayed in the **grand mosque**.
- 8) **Theme:** The role of an argument that is the topic of a predicate that does not express action – a stative predicate. **Audrey** is a computer expert, **The book** is in the library.
- 9) **Instrument:** the means by which the action is performed or something comes about. They signed the contract with **the same pen**. She locked the door with **a key**.

- 10) **Goal:** the entity towards which something moves, either **literally** as in (a) or **metaphorically** as in (b): a. Sheila handed her license **to the policeman**. b. Pat told the joke **to his friends**.
- 11) **Source:** the entity from which something moves, either **literally** as “The plane came back **from London**” or **metaphorically** as “We got the idea **from a British professor**”.

Chapter 5 Lexical Relations

5.1 Lexical Fields

- **Lexical field** or (semantic field) is the way of organizing **related** words and expressions into **a system** which shows their relationship to one another, like, *phoneme* in **linguistics** or *gigabyte* in **computing**.

For example:

- *Father, mother, uncle, and aunt*, etc. belong to **one** lexical field called **kinship relation**.
- *Tennis, badminton, golf, soccer, basketball, volleyball*, etc. belong to **sports**.
- *Poem, novel, short story, biography, essay*, etc. belong to **creative writings**.
- *Red, blue, black, green, yellow*, etc. belong to **colors**.
- Some lexical sets involve **part-whole** relationships (*arm* includes *hand*, which includes *finger* and *thumb*).
- Some sets are **sequential** (numbers *one, two, three* etc.) or,
- **Cyclical** (*January, February, March*, etc.; *Saturday, Sunday, Monday*, etc.; *spring, summer, autumn, winter*).
- Some sets, mostly small ones, form **paradigms**, the words *man, woman, boy, and girl*, all denoting [human].
- **Componential analysis** also called *feature analysis* or *contrast analysis*, refers to the description of the meaning of words through structured sets of **semantic features**.

▪ man =	[+ male]	[+ mature]
▪ woman =	[– male]	[+ mature]
▪ woman =	[+ female]	[+ mature]
▪ boy =	[+ male]	[– mature]
▪ girl =	[– male]	[– mature]
▪ girl =	[+ female]	[– mature]
▪ child =	[+/- male]	[– mature]
▪ *adolescent =	[– adult]	[– child]

5.2 Kinship

- **Kinship** is the relationship between people created by marriage, birth, adoption, blood ties, or other rituals.
- A relationship is a kind of a predicate.

Example:

- *Harold is Alice's father.*
- Theme Predicate Associate
- Harold father- of Alice

➤ **In English**

- *Grandmother* = the mother of one's mother and the mother of one's father
- *Grandfather* = is the father of either parent.
- *Aunt* = is the sister of either parent.
- *Uncle* = is the brother of either parent.
- *Nephew* = is the son of one's brother or sister.
- *Niece* = is the daughter of one's brother or sister.
- *Cousin* = in English does not distinguish sex.

➤ **But in Arabic the case is different.**

➤ **In Swedish**

- *Farfar* = the father of one's father
- *farmor* = the father of one's mother
- *morfar* = the mother of one's father
- *Mormor* = the mother of one's mother

5.3 Hyponymy

- A hyponym is the relationship between expressions in which the meaning of one expression is included in the meaning of the other.

Example

- 1a. Rover is a *collie*.
- 1b. Rover is a *dog*.
- 2a. There are *tulips* in the vase.
- 2b. There are *flowers* in the vase.

1. The term *collie* is a **hyponym** of dog, and
2. The term *tulips* is a **hyponym** of flower.

- ❖ So *dog* and *flower* are, respectively, the **superordinates** of *collie* and *tulip*, and this relation is an example of **entailment**.

- If we join two of these sentences with **and**,
 - 3a. Rover is a *collie* **and** (Rover) is a *dog*.
- We create a redundant sentence called a **tautology**. Tautology is a sentence with two predications, such that one entails the other.
- But what if we join these two sentences but have them differ in polarity as in:
 - 3b. Rover is a *collie* but (Rover is) not a *dog*.
- This will result in what is called **contradiction**.

- A **Contradiction** is a sentence with two predications such that one denies the other.

5.4 Synonymy

- Synonyms are different phonological words which have the same or very similar meanings.

Couch/sofa large/big lawyer/attorney toilet/lavatory

- Synonyms, therefore, are expressions which share a sense; perfect synonyms would share **all** their senses.
- Synonyms can be nouns, adjectives, adverbs, or verbs.

Examples of synonymous words:

- Jack is a *seaman*.
- Jack is a *sailor*. (N)
- The rock is *large*.
- The rock is *big*. (Adj)
- The train traveled *fast*.
- The train traveled *rapidly*. (Adv)
- The bus *left* promptly at 10.
- The bus *departed* promptly at 10. (V)

- It can be said that each sentence in the above pairs is a **paraphrase** of the other.

- Synonymy is an instance of **mutual entailment** as in

- Jack is a *sailor*
- Jack is a *seaman*.

- Synonyms are instances of **mutual hyponymy** as in

- *Large* is a **hyponym** of *big* and
- *Big* is a **hyponym** of *large*.

- If we join two of these sentences with and we create a **tautology** as in

- The rock is *large* and (it is) *big*.

- If we combine two sentences and use but the result is a **contradiction** as in

- The train traveled *fast* but (it did) not (travel) *rapidly*.

- Two sentences which are **paraphrases** may differ this way:

- Mr. Jenkins is our *postman*.
- Mr. Jenkins is *the person who delivers our mail*.

- In other words, the above sentences are **paraphrases** of each other but the words are **not synonyms**. How?

- “*person who delivers (our) mail*” is a **paraphrase** of the simpler term (*our*) *postman*, but we do not call it a synonym because synonyms are typically single lexemes of the same weight.

Dictionaries typically provide a number of synonyms for at least some of the lexemes they define. However, synonymy is not a simple matter, for two lexemes never have the same range of syntactic occurrences and they are likely to differ in what they suggest. Consider the following:

- Alice is **skinny**.
- Alice is **thin**.
- Positive/negative connotation)
- A dialect **difference** but not **synonyms**
- Mr. Jenkins is our **postman**.
- Mr. Jenkins is our **mailman**.

We consider postman and mailman as a dialect difference rather than an instance of synonymy. A person might know one word and not the other!!!

5.5 Antonymy: Antonyms are words which are **opposite** in meaning.

Examples

- The television is **on** now.
- The television is **off** now.
- Mr. Adams is an **old** man.
- Mr. Adams is a **young** man.
- The road is **wide** here.
- The road is **narrow** here.
- **Antonyms** can be verbs, nouns, or adjectives (the biggest in number).

There are **measure adjectives** because they can be combined with expressions of measurements, as in:

- a) four feet **long**.
- b) two meters **high**.
- c) nineteen years **old**.

Measure adjectives can be:

- 1. marked
- 2. unmarked (global member).

Marked: any linguistic form which is less usual or less neutral than the other form.

Unmarked: widely used.

5.6 Binary (simple) and non-binary antonyms (gradable)

- There are different kinds of antonymous relationships.
- On and off are **binary antonyms (simple)**. (there is no *middle ground*). Other examples are: *open/shut, dead/alive, asleep/awake* etc.
- *Old/young, wide/narrow* are **non-binary (gradable)** antonyms. (middle ground). Mr. Adams may be neither *old* nor *young*.

- **Non-binary (gradable)** adjectives can easily be modified: very old, rather young, quite wide, extremely narrow, etc. However, binary adjectives are not gradable and do not accept modifiers.
- So, it is not logical to say:
 - *He is *too* asleep.
 - *He is *slightly* dead.

5.8 Converse antonyms

- **Converse antonyms** are terms which describe a relation between two entities from alternative viewpoints.
- **Converse predicates** have a valency of two or more.

Example:

- 1a. The map is **above** the chalkboard.
- 1b. The chalkboard is **below** the map.
- In 1a map has the role of Theme and chalkboard the role of Associate; in 1b the roles are reversed.
- **Converseness** is a kind of antonymy between two terms.
 - They are also called **relational** antonyms.
 - [a] and [b] are **paraphrases**.
- Common **converse** pairs include:
 - a) **Kinship** such as father and son.
 - b) **Social roles**: husband of or wife of.
 - c) **Directional opposites** : above and below.
- If [a] is the X of [b], then [b] is the Y of [a].
- Converse antonyms depend on each other. For example, buy and sell. You cannot buy something without someone else selling it to you.
- If A sells X to B, B buys X from A.
- There is a **converse sentence** in which the original object becomes subject, the verb is passive, and the **agent** may be deleted.

Example

- Danny broke a window. (affected, Object)
- A window was broken (by Danny).
- Olga wrote a marvelous essay. (effect, Object)
- A marvelous essay was written (by Olga).
- Simon climbed the wall. (theme, Object)
- The wall was climbed (by Simon).

Chapter 6 Transition and Transfer Predicates

Introduction:

- **Arguments**: the number of referring expressions (noun phrases) in a proposition.
- **Predicate**: may be a verb, an adjective, a preposition, or a noun phrase. The meaning of a predicate is determined by the valency and by the semantic roles that the valency (argument/ arguments) have.
- **Valency**: the number of arguments that accompany a particular predicate in one sentence.
- **Marked predicates** (specialized in meaning) as *walk, drift, fly* (indicate particular ways of moving)
- **Unmarked predicates** (general) *go*

The valency of a predicate is the number of arguments that a predicate has.

6.1 Transition

Transition: Some predicates express movement from one place to another, respectively the **Source** and the **Goal**. These are called **predicates of transition**.

1. The bus **goes** from Greenville to Stratford.

- This sentence tells us about the movement of an **inanimate** object from one place, the **Source**, to another place, the **Goal**.

Sentence 1 Explanation

1. The bus **goes from** Greenville **to** Stratford.

Argument ₁	Predicate	Argument ₂	Argument ₃
Semantic role		Semantic role	Semantic role
Theme	Action	Goal (<i>to</i>)	Source (<i>from</i>)
Bus	go	Greenville	Stratford

2. Carlo **came to** this country **from** Italy.

- Sentence 2 is similar in role structure to sentence 1, except that the entity moving is **animate**.

Sentence 2 Explanation

2. Carlo **came to** this country **from** Italy.

Argument ₁	Predicate	Argument ₂	Argument ₃
Semantic role		Semantic role	Semantic role
Actor	Action	Goal (<i>to</i>)	Source (<i>from</i>)
Carlo	come	this country	Italy

3. He **emerged** from the dark cellar **into** the bright sunlight.

4. He plunged from the bright sunlight **into** the dark cellar.

To is replaced by **into** to express the notion that the Goal is not simply a location but an area which is not necessarily an enclosed space.

- A sentence may express a **Path**, a place or area between the **Source** and the **Goal**.
- The **Path** is indicated by a form that may follow one of several prepositions: *via, by way of, through, across* or *over*.

5. The bus **goes from** Greenville **to** Stratford **by way of** Compton.

Theme	Source	Goal	Path
-------	--------	------	------

6. The boat **drifted over the** water **from** one place **to** another.

Theme	Path	Source	Goal
-------	------	--------	------

Time Frame

Movement through space requires **time**.

1. The bus goes from Greenville to Stratford.
2. Carlo came to this country from Italy.

Examples:

7. The **road** goes from Greenville **to** Stratford **by way of** Compton.
8. The **driveway** extends **from** the street **to** the garage
9. **Curtains** hung **from** the ceiling **to** the floor.

Ç **From** and **to** introduce **Source** and **Goal**.

Ç But the **road**, **driveway** and **curtains** do **not** move from one place to another.

Ç So there is **no** Time Zero or Time Plus.

Ç The verbs *extend, hang, spread* and others are verbs of **spatial extension**.

Ç The predicates *go, extend, hang* as they are used **here** are verbs of **pseudo-transition**.

Ç The above three verbs are **stative**.

Ç Sentences (1-13 in the book) have **dynamic** predicates such as: *drive, come, row, steal, give*, etc.

Ç Some verbs can be **stative** or **dynamic**.

The **time frame** of a predicate like *extend* in this sentence (there is **no** Time Zero or Time Plus):

8. The **driveway** extends **from** the street **to** the garage

6.2 Transfer

- **Transfer:** Some predicates express **transfer**, causing the movement of an entity from one place to another or person.
- **Transfer Predicates:** express the **moving** of something from one place to another. (causative meaning)

10. Fenwick **drives** a **bus** from Greenville to Stratford.

- The above predicate is a **predicate of transfer**.
- Transfer verbs are the **causative equivalent** of the transition verbs:
- Fenwick **causes** the bus to **go**.....

Forms of Transfer

- a) Transfer includes putting and removing:

11. Squirrels are stashing nuts in the oak tree.

12. Thieves stole some money from the cash box.

- b) Transfer includes giving and taking away:

13. Ronnie gave Rosie some flowers.

14. The accident deprived Alex of his livelihood.

- c) Transfer includes communicating something to someone through language:

15. Mother told the children a story.

16. Agnes is writing her mother a letter.

10. Fenwick **drives** a bus from Greenville to Stratford by way of Compton.

Agent	Theme	Source	Goal	Path
Fenwick	bus	Greenville	Stratford	Compton

The verb **drive** is a **predicate of transition**. This sentence has **causative** meaning. Fenwick **causes** the bus to go from Greenville, etc., and he moves with the bus.

17. We **spread** a red carpet from the **sidewalk** to the **door**

To spread something is to **cause** it to be at once at place X and place Y, the *Source* and the *Goal*.

18. The court **restored** the property to its lawful owner (from one who was **not** the lawful owner).

To **restore** something is to **cause** it to be in the **same** place or possession at Time Plus as it was at Time Minus and it was not at Time Zero.

19. The team **gave** a present to Harry [**gave** Harry a present].

The **team** is both **Source** and **Agent** (the present comes from the team). Harry is the **Goal**.

- **The following is a group of verbs that occur as *predicates* in sentences with the previous *argument structure*:**

give [most common, least marked]

award [the object is a prize]

contribute [the Source is one of several donors]

donate [the transferred is considered a worthy action]

entrust [the change is temporary]

grant [the Source is a person of authority]

hand [the act is physical, the object is relatively small]

lend [the change is temporary]

lose [the change result from competition between Source and Goal]

sell [money is involved in the act]

submit [the Goal is a person of authority]

20. Harry **received** a present from the team.

Here the word **to** is missing because the subject names the **Goal**. The **Source** is the NP introduced by the preposition **from**.

Here is a group of verbs that occur as *predicates* in sentences with the previous *argument structure*:

get [least marked]

take [the action may be legitimate or not; that is, take can be equivalent to accept or to steal]

accept [the action is legitimate]

acquire [the circumstances of the action are vague]

borrow [the change is temporary]

collect [the object is plural or non-countable, or the act is habitual- in other word, the act is distributed]

inherit [the Source is typically, but not necessarily, deceased]

obtain [the action is the result of effort by the Goal]

receive [the act results from the kindness or generosity of the Source]

steal [illegal act]

Chapter 7 REFERENCE

- **Reference:** The relationship between the language and the world, the relation between a language expression such as *this door*, *both doors*, *the dog*, *another dog* and *whatever the expression* relates to in a particular situation of language use, including what a speaker may imagine.
- **A referring expression:** Is any expression used in an utterance to refer to something or someone used with a particular referent in mind.
- Is a piece of language, a noun phrase, that is used in an utterance and is linked to something outside language, some living or dead or imaginary entity or concept or group of entities or concepts. Examples: *Uncle Fred*, *that door*, etc.
- **A referent:** The entity to which the referring expression is linked. (not necessarily physical nor real).

Examples

- *Uncle Fred*, *that door* are **referring expressions** and have **different referents** when used in utterances.
- **Question:**
 - ✓ Are *Lake Ontario* and *a lake* **different** referring expressions referring to **different** kinds of referents?
- **Answer:**
 - ✓ *Lake Ontario* is (unique) (**Constant Reference**) and it always refers to that referent.
 - ✓ *a lake* is (non-unique) (**Variable Reference**) and can have **different referents** in **different utterances**.

7.1 Referents and Referring Expressions

Sources of confusion:

The cat is chasing the rat.

1- A referring expression is **not** a referent.

In the above example, the cat- the phrase- is the **referring expression**, and (a small animal with fur, four legs, a tail and claws, usually kept as a pet or for catching mice) is its **referent**. The relation that holds between the noun phrase- the cat- and- the object- the referent is the **reference**.

2- There is no natural connection between the referring expression and the referent. This stems from the fact that language is arbitrary.

3- The existence of the referring expression **does not** guarantee the existence of the referent in the physical social-world. Actually, we can use the referring expression the present Emperor of Texas while it has no referent in the real world.

the present Emperor of Texas does not exist .

4- Two or more referring expression may have the same referent. (**Two different expressions having one referent**).

- **We can refer to Robert Blair as:**
- The husband of Mildred Stone Blair.
- the father of Patrick and Robin Blair.
- the city editor of the Morgantown *Daily Enquirer*, etc.

All these referring expressions have the same referent (Robert Blair), but they do **not** mean the same. They **differ** in their connotations.

5- The referring expression is used to identify the referent, but the identification may be valid only temporarily, for example (*the girl with the purple sweater*).

6. Sometimes we tend to use **metonymy** to identify some entity, especially a person, by some characteristics associated with the entity.

An example is when a waitress asked a group of people seated around a table: “which of you is the tuna salad?”, means who ordered the tuna salad.

• 7.2 Extension and Intension

- The **extension** of a lexeme (or a linguistic expression) is the **set of entities** which it **denotes**.

Examples:

- The **extension** of *bird* includes all *falcons, parrots, geese, doves, eagles, hawks*, and any bird that ever lived or will ever live, or any fictitious creature that is accepted as a bird.
- The lexeme *Lake Ontario* has a **single item** in its extension. (*Lake Ontario* is one of the five Great Lakes in Canada)
- The **intension** of any lexeme (or a linguistic expression) is the set of properties shared by all members of the extension.

Examples:

- The intension of the word *bird* is the set of properties shared by all members of its extension, they have wings, they can fly, they have two legs, lay eggs, etc.
- **Extension** can change, while **intension** remains the same.

Explanation:

- In the above example, the **extension** of the word *bird* might increase at any time, new birds may appear, fictitious birds may be added to the set. But the **intension**, the properties shared by these members, will remain the same.
- A **prototype** is an object or referent that is considered **typical** of the whole set.

Example:

- The lexeme **door** is encountered in isolation.
- Each one has his own prototype. Some of us may think of a door swinging on hinges, the other might think of an overhead door that moves vertically. →The kind of door you think of is the prototype of all doors.

- **7.3 Some different kinds of referents**

- 1) Unique and non-unique
- 2) Concrete and abstract
- 3) Countable and non-countable

- **7.3.1 Unique and non-unique referents**

1. We swam in **Lake Ontario**.
2. We swam in **a lake**.

- In the above examples, we can distinguish two kinds of referring expressions:

First: *Lake Ontario*, with **fixed reference (Constant)**, *sun*, *moon*, *Japan*, *Saudi Arabia*.

Second: the other is *a lake* with **variable reference**.

- The first refers to a unique entity, while the second is referring to an entity that might be different every time it is used (non-unique).

- **7.3.2 Concrete and abstract referents**

Concrete referents: are objects which can be sensually perceived such as a *boy*, a *stone* and *leaf*.

Abstracts referents: are objects which cannot be perceived directly through senses like *idea*, *problem*, *suggestion* and *love*.

Some referring expressions, however, can have **either** concrete or abstract referent according to the context in which they occur.

1		2
<i>The key to the front door</i>	versus	<i>The key to success.</i>
<i>A bright light</i>	versus	<i>A bright future.</i>
Literal meaning		Figurative meaning

• 7.3.3 Countable and non-countable

A noun phrase is either countable or non-countable.

Both countable and non-countable noun phrases may be concrete or abstract resulting in the four groups that follow:

Concrete countable expressions which refer to items that are separated from each other, such as *apples*, *coins* and *pens*, which can be counted one by one.

Abstract countable phrases which refer to abstract referents such as *idea*, *problem* and *suggestion*.

Concrete non-countable expressions

Three types are distinguished according to the referents:

- a. Continuous substances such as *apple sauce*, *ink* and *mud*, which do not consist of natural discrete parts.
- b. Substances that consist of numerous particles not worth counting, like *sand* and *rice*.
- c. Collections whose parts have quite different names such as *furniture* (*bed*, *chair*, *carpet*, *sofa*, etc.), *luggage* (*bag*, *suitcase*, etc.), *jewellery* (*necklace*, *ring*).

Abstract non-countable expressions such as *advice*, *information* and *beauty* which are treated in English language as indivisible.

• 7.4 Different ways of referring

There are **three** kinds of referring expressions:

- 1- Proper names (which have unique reference): *Lake Ontario* and *Mona*.
- 2- Pronouns: I, he, she, they, etc.
- 3- Noun phrases that have nouns with variable reference as the head, preceded by a determiner and possibly followed by one or more complements as:

<i>Determiner</i>	<i>head</i>	<i>complement</i>
The	plate	that is broken.

Some complements can be reduced and become modifiers in **pre-head positions**:

<i>Determiner</i>	<i>modifier</i>	<i>head</i>	<i>complement</i>
The	broken	plate	that you mentioned.

Complements and modifiers provide part of the identity of the referent- they answer the question ‘which?’, which plate?, for instance.

- Referring expressions with fixed reference, like *Lake Ontario*, do not require complements, modifiers, or determiners since their uniqueness makes the question 'which' unnecessary.

Types of determiners:

1- Zero determiners (no overt determiner):

- We are counting coins.

2- Demonstrative determiners: Singular this/that and plural these/those.

a. (they indicate respectively that the referent is near or not near the speaker's location):

- We'll use this table and those chairs (over there).

b. They also identify present or future events versus past events:

- We saw 'Rigoletto' last month. That was a great performance.

3- Possessive determiners:

They refer to an entity in its relation to another referent as in:

- *Huda's dress is beautiful.*
- *My dress is beautiful.*

Possession is a term for various kinds of relation:

- My necktie expresses ownership.
- My brother expresses kinship.
- My friend expresses a kind of association.
- Charles's *Introducing English Semantics* expresses authorship.

4- Quantifying determiners:

They express the amount or quantity of the entity denoted by the noun (how much? Or how many?)

4.a Cardinal number: specific quantifier:

- One day, five people, 76 students, etc.

4.b General quantifiers: some eggs, a little milk, a few problems, much traffic.

5- Indefinite determiners:

- They do **not** identify as in:
- I ate a banana and an apple.

6- Definite determiner:

The definite article the is used when identity can be taken for granted as in:

- The movie you saw.

Finally, a countable noun phrase which expresses a **total** may be called a **collective** (all men), or **distributive** as in (every man).

- **7.4.1 Generic and non-generic reference**

What seems to be the **same** referring expression may have quite **different** kinds of referents. Examples:

- A dog makes a fine pet.
- Dogs make fine pets.
- A dog is lying in the middle of the street.
- Dogs are lying in the middle of the street.

In the first two sentences, the sentences are **not** about (a) particular dog(s). Both sentences apply to any dog. In this case a dog or dogs are said to have **generic reference** (**A generalization**- Neither sentence is an answer to the question “Which dog/s?”).

In the second couple of sentences, the question “ which dog or dogs” is **relevant**. The sentences are about (a) particular dog(s). In this case the two referring expressions are said to have **non-generic reference**.

- **7.4.2 Specific and non-specific reference**

1. We have a dog.
2. We’d like to have a dog.
3. I am sure there are answers to all your questions.
4. I trust we can find answers to all your questions.

In the first sentence *a dog* refers to a **specific** dog. The reference is to some particular animal. We can insert the word certain before *dog* without changing the meaning.

This is **not** the case with the second sentence where *a dog* is **non-specific** in reference.

On the same understanding, *answers* in sentence 3 has a **specific** reference, while *answers* in sentence 4 has **non-specific** reference.

- **7.4.3 Definite and indefinite reference**

-The definite article *the* occurs in a referring expression when the speaker assumes that the hearer can identify the referent as in:

- I’ve got the ticket.

or when identification is part of the referring expression:

- I’ve got the ticket that you wanted.

-On the other hand, indefinite determiners *a*, *an*, *some* and *zero* indicate that the referent is part of a larger entity:

- I saw a man there, a while ago.
- Some books are over there.
- Dogs are lying in the middle of the street.

-When the referring expression is definite, the speaker assumes that the referent can be identified by the addressee for **one of four reasons**:

a. The speaker assumes that the hearer can identify the referent from the physical-social context—a form of deixis:

- Take the cups off the table and put them in the cabinet.

b. The speaker assumes that the addressee can make the necessary implicature to relate a new reference to a previous one:

- This was the site of the old Stanwick Theatre. The stage was over here and the lobby was over there.

c. The reference is fixed and therefore presumably part of the addressee's general knowledge:

- Lake Ontario, Barbara

d. The referent, while not unique in the way that *Lake Ontario* is unique, has a unique or nearly unique position in the more limited world of the speaker and addressee:

- Be careful! You might wake the baby.

- If none of these conditions obtains, the referent is specified by the speaker through some complement or modifier in the referring expression—with the presumption that the complement or modifier makes the referent clear to the addressee:

- The salesman who came here yesterday was back again today.

• 7.5 Deixis

- **Deixis** is a term for a word or a phrase which directly relates an utterance to a time, place, or persons.

-The most primitive way of referring to something is to point to it.

-This kind of reference can only be accomplished with people and concrete things in one's immediate environment.

-On a less primitive level, every language has **deictic words** which 'point' to 'things' in the **physical-social context** of the speaker and addressee(s) and whose referents can only be determined by knowing **the context** in which they are used.

Example:

- I was disappointed that you didn't come this afternoon.
- I hope you'll join us tomorrow.

We wouldn't be able to identify the referents *I, you, us, this afternoon, or tomorrow* though we **understand** each word and how they are related to each other. Why?

→ The meaning of any lexeme depends to some extent on the **context** in which it occurs. In other words, deictic elements can only be interpreted through their contexts.

English examples of **deictic words** include:

1- **Pronouns**: *I, you* and *we*, which 'point' to the participants in any speech act; *he, she, it* and *they*, when they are used to refer to others in the same environment.

- I will watch a movie tonight. What about you?

2- **Locative expressions**: *here and there*, which designate space close to the speaker or farther away; *this/these* and *that/those*, which respectively indicate entities close to or removed from the speaker.

- She is a resident in this building.

3- **Temporal expressions**: they are relative to the time: *now, then, yesterday, today, tomorrow, last week, next month* and so on.

- We will meet next week.

→ Words which can be deictic are **not always so**:

- *Today* and *tomorrow* are **not** deictic in:

Today's costly apartment buildings may be tomorrow's slums.

- The pronoun *you* is also **not** deictic when it is used with the meaning 'one: any person or persons' as in:

- You can lead a horse to water but you can't make him drink.

• 7.6 Anaphora

Anaphora is a kind of secondary reference in which a previous reference is recalled by use of special function words or equivalent lexemes.

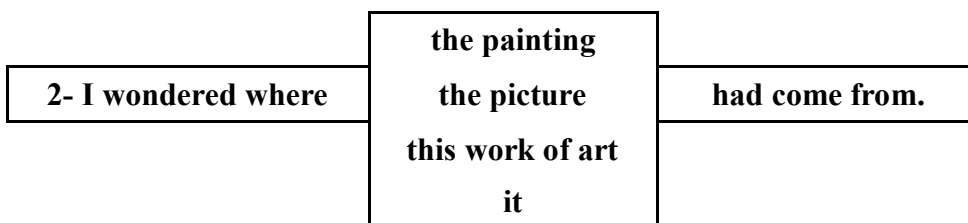
Example:

- Jack and Jill tried to lift the box and push it onto the top shelf. However, he/she/it/they slipped and fell to the floor.

The choice of *he, she, it, or they* serves as a link to some referring expression that has occurred recently in the discourse.

-It is important to know that the anaphoric word refers to the referent of the primary referring expression, not to the referring expression itself.

1- There was a strange painting on the wall.(indefinite)



The four underlined expressions in the second sentence are **co-referential** with the underlined expression in the first sentence. These four are different kinds of **anaphoric expressions**(they are all **definite**).

-The first **three** of these are examples of **lexical anaphora**:

1- achieved by repeating the head of the noun phrase (painting).

2- achieved by using a noun which , in the context , is equivalent in reference, synonym (picture).

3- achieved by using a term which has a more inclusive reference, a superordinate (work of art).

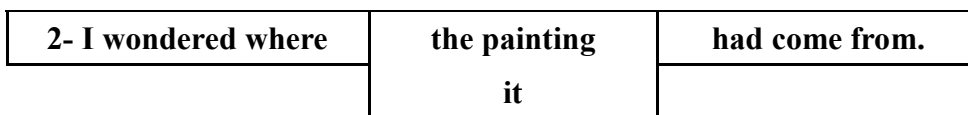
The last one(it) is a **grammatical anaphora** which is achieved by a pronoun (it).

• 7.7 Shifts in ways of referring

1- If the first referring expression is indefinite but specific, the **co- referential** expression is definite as in:

Example:

- There was **a strange painting** on the wall.



2- If the first referring expression is indefinite and not specific, the following **co-referential** expression may be definite or

indefinite as in:

Example:

- If we were going to buy **a car**, we would buy **it** at Hudson's.
- If we were going to buy **a car**, we would buy **one** at Hudson's.

3- A speaker may shift from specific reference to generic reference as in:

Example:

We didn't buy **a new car** because **they** cost too much now.

The vagueness of **they** could be resolved through **prosody**. If **new** is accented, **they** co-refers with new cars, if not, **they** co-refers with **car**.

- **7.8 Referential ambiguity**

Referential ambiguity occurs when:

1- An indefinite referring expression may be **specific** or not:

-I wanted to buy **a newspaper**.

Here, you do not know whether the speaker has a particular newspaper in his mind, or any newspaper.

The ambiguity disappears if we add:

but I couldn't find **one**.

or

but I couldn't find **it**.

2- Anaphora is unclear because a personal pronoun, *he*, *she*, *it* or *they* can be linked to either of two referring expressions:

- Jack told Ralph that a visitor was waiting for him. (for Jack or Ralph?)

3- The pronoun *you* is used generically or specifically:

- If you want to get ahead, you have to work hard. (addressee or generally?)

4- A noun phrase with *every* can have distributed reference or collected reference:

- I am buying a gift for everybody here. (distributive 'a gift for each' or collective 'a gift for all'?)